



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

as well be buried. The geologist who seeks, for example, the causes of volcanism, will find help in his study of the distribution and relative action of existing volcanoes—in other words, he cannot keep from geography. The geographer, in his turn, needs the perspective of ancient volcanic history, if he would appreciate his own facts. Because he has commonly had no such vista, he has burdened generations of boys with the solemn blunder that a volcano is a burning mountain. Thus we may vindicate for each science its own center while granting a generous measure of common facts. The difference is in the point of view, the aim, and method of treatment; the geologist seeks largely that which has been, the geographer that which is, and each must be known in the light of the other. It is precisely the case with two biologists, one of whom studies living, the other fossil, forms. The day is past when they can work apart; yet none would deny that their fields are reasonably differentiated.

FOREIGN NOTES

CONDUCTED BY F. H. HOWARD

THE NEW EDUCATIONAL BILL. *The Schoolmaster* [London], April 4, 1896.

We have no hesitation in describing the education scheme of the government as easily the most drastic and far-reaching series of proposals for the reconstruction of our educational system ever yet submitted to the Houses of Parliament. Conjecture as to its ultimate effects is, of course, more or less profitless, if interesting. But, looking far into the years, we see under the scheme the entire disappearance of the educational authority elected *ad hoc*; we see the disappearance of the school board *as such*; we see the simplification and unification of local administration; we see the parish council acting as the local managers of a school, in lieu of the present direct and autonomous control of the too often pettifogging school board; we see the leavening of the private management of voluntary schools with a measure of supervision at the hands of the municipal authority; and we see all forms of local education under the general directorship of a strong county or county borough authority. Now, these things may be in the dim and distant future only; and they may or may not quite work out on these lines; but if we venture at this early stage upon a comment at all, it would be to ask the teachers of the country to take the wider view of the present situation, and to look at the scheme in the first place in the light of these ultimate possibilities. They suggest much, we venture to think, that may be utilized in the long run for the betterment of all forms of education—primary because of its association with secondary, rural because of its more effective control, voluntary because of the introduction of the element of representative supervision.

The Journal of Education [London], May 1896.

THE bill is too large a morsel to digest in a single number. We have merely glanced at its leading characteristics. The debates upon it, which will occupy the House of Commons for the greater part of this month, will afford us opportunity enough to return to the many details that we have passed over, and also, we may hope, clear up what seem, on a first reading, indefensible anomalies. Let us, in conclusion, tabulate the *pros* and *cons* as they strike an educational onlooker. *Pros*: (1) The principle of decentralization is accepted. The central department will delegate its routine work to local bodies, and its chief function in the future will be to act as a general referee in educational matters and final court of appeal. (2) South Kensington ceases to be a separate department. (3) Means are provided for delimiting primary education and checking its encroachments—Sec. 12 (3). (4) The “beer money” is ear-marked, and must henceforth be spent on secondary education. That many-headed monster technical education, as defined by Act of Parliament, disappears. (5) The state, for the first time, recognizes its obligation to see that a sufficient supply of secondary education is provided. (6) The age of exemption from school attendance is raised from eleven to twelve. (7) An extra Parliamentary grant, estimated at half a million, is made to schools, and first in order among the objects to which this grant must be applied is the payment of the teaching staff. *Cons*: (1) The central department remains unchanged, except for the delegation of some of its powers. There is still a figurehead called the President of Council, and an acting chief who may or may not be in the cabinet. The educational council is still a dream of the future, and secondary schools and teachers will, in the last instance, be under the control of officials appointed to deal solely with primary education. (2) The county councils will have the power of the purse, and beyond certain fixed limits may exercise an absolute veto on the expenditure of school boards. (For a parallel we would suggest a standing resolution of the House of Lords that the income tax shall never exceed 8d. in the pound). (3) The charity commission is neither absorbed nor reconstituted. (4) There is no provision for redistribution of endowments or for supplying the wants of ill-endowed counties by means of new rating or borrowing powers. (5) Schools are subject to a dual inspection (a triple one, if we include that which the charity commission has *in posse*), and there is no guarantee that the local inspectors will be duly qualified.

The Educational Times [London], May 1896.

WHILST there is undoubtedly a good deal in the educational bill which ought to be and has been welcomed by a majority of those concerned in secondary education, it is evident that the recommendations of the commission and the demands of the conferences are by no means completely covered by the proposals of the government. The delimitation of primary and secondary

schools depends upon a permissive clause which some of the educational committees would probably ignore. The absence of an educational council, such as was suggested in the report of the commission, is a very serious defect. The appointment of educational experts on the local authorities is merely permissive, whereas it ought to be enjoined by statute. Private and proprietary schools are left perilously at the mercy of county councils. With a prejudiced council they might fare very badly, especially as their appeal, under the scheme of the bill, would be made to "My lords," or virtually to an individual vice-president. With the Registration Bill we have dealt in a separate article, but we may here observe that, until registration is complete and representation direct, existing private interests ought to be more carefully safeguarded. Our criticisms are not to be taken as hostile to either of the two bills, except in the sense that we should regard them both as unsatisfactory in an unamended form. But we believe them to be capable of being converted into very good measures, from the secondary point of view, by amendments such as we have indicated. If due weight be given to the wishes of the universities, and of the secondary bodies which have spoken with so near an approach to unanimity, the government will establish a strong claim upon our gratitude.

AFTER-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN FRANCE. *The Journal of Education* [London], May 1896.

THE rapidity with which the new movement for after-school education has gained ground is most extraordinary. We select a few illustrative figures. In Côtes-du-Nord, on December 31, 1895, no less than 230 courses for adults were being held, the number of pupils attending being 5932, of whom 643 could neither read nor write. Lot-et-Garonne can at present boast of 183 courses, with more than 3000 hearers. In Indre-et-Loire 55 courses have been begun since October of last year. The subjects treated of have exhibited the utmost variety, but an attempt has been made to adapt the teaching to the wants of the locality. Magic lanterns have been in such demand that the supply has been inadequate, whilst the government has shown its sense of the value of this aid to teaching by appointing a committee to decide on the most suitable instruments. We regard it as a highly satisfactory feature of the movement that primary and secondary teachers have joined hands in furthering it, the former taking the *conférences*, the latter conducting the courses.

THE TRAINING AND EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS AT OXFORD. *The Educational Times* [London], April 1896.

CONVOCATION at Oxford has given its sanction to a new experiment in the domain of secondary education. At all events it adopted, on March 17, the preamble of a statute making provision for the training and examination of members of the university, and others, as teachers in the secondary schools. In vain did Professor Case, the Grand Objector of Oxford, whose special

function it is to damp the enthusiasm of his younger colleagues, protest against any further "increase of bureaucracy" in the premier university "by enlarging the operations of the local examinations delegacy." He preached to deaf ears. Even the Warden of All Souls, who is not exactly a rabid revolutionist, declared that it was the duty of Oxford to make the experiment—all the more so, perhaps, because Cambridge has already made it and failed. As for the delegacy, said Sir William Anson, its relation to the university is like that of the Chartered Company to the Empire—it is the means of enlarging the sphere of influence of Oxford without committing it. The parallel is not altogether a happy one, for it implies a raid and foreshadows a failure. But, so far as we are aware, there is no Transvaal in this case to oppose the inroad of Mr. Gerrans and his gallant troopers. Under existing circumstances, indeed, we hardly expect them to advance many miles from Mafeking.

A REFORM IN FRENCH SECONDARY EDUCATION. *The Journal of Education* [London], May 1896.

A LONG mooted reform of the *baccalauréat* has reached the stage of a *projet de loi*, which was laid on the table of the Chamber, on February 4. The "reform proves to be nothing less than abolition. The preamble sets forth the injury done to secondary education by the present system; the subject-matter of the examination does not coincide with the work of the highest classes; the schoolmaster is compelled by pressure from the parents to subordinate his teaching to the requirements of the examination; crammers and cram-books are called upon for help. The first two clauses of the bill run as follows: (1) "The *baccalauréat*, considered as the final test of secondary studies (classical and modern) is suppressed. (2) For it is substituted an examination divided into two parts, one bearing on the subjects taught in *rhétorique*, or second modern, the other on those studied in *philosophie*, or in the class for elementary mathematics, or in *première-lettres*, or in *première-sciences*." What is perhaps to us most interesting is the change in the examiners; the boys "are restored to their natural judges." The jury conducting the examinations is to be composed of a delegate appointed by the state, and from three to five masters of the school (*agrégés ou licenciés*) nominated by the head-master. This is practically the German form of testing school results.

THE VALUE OF A LIBERAL EDUCATION. *The Educational Times* [London], May 1896.

AT the last Edinburgh graduation, Professor Prothero made an excellent speech on the character and value of a liberal education. He pointed out that professional education generally ceased to be liberal in proportion as it became practical. "The special instruction which fitted a student for the church, the bar, medicine, and education, in so far as it was limited or specialized in its aim—in so far as it conduced to success and distinction in a certain walk of life—was not liberal. He did not say that professional education

was better or worse than liberal, but it was not the same." The distinction is often lost sight of in this exceptionally practical age. If it were not for the rapid development of our universities, side by side with the exclusively technical and scientific institutions, we might well despond over the future of liberal education and the decay of the humanities. Not that the scientific and the technical are of necessity divorced from liberal culture, for, as Mr. Prothero says, the mind that has habitually fed upon what is worthiest in science and literature acquires a combined firmness and sensitiveness, a grasp and subtlety, a decision and a delicacy of touch, which are the mental equivalents of vigorous bodily health. "The furniture of the cultivated mind was not facts, not what we called learning, but rather the ideas which were the deposit of facts well pondered; its peculiar characteristic was that mental courtesy and polish which sprang from intimacy with the great works of the intellect in all time. This was the ripest fruit of a liberal education; a university was the garden where it ought most easily to grow." The humanity born of facts may be riper and more wholesome than the humanity born of imagination; but the first kind is not born at all until the facts have crystallized into ideas.

A SCHOOLMASTERS' DIPLOMA. *The Journal of Education* [London], May 1896.

THE chief announcement to be made about Edinburgh University is that government has recognized the schoolmasters' diploma. This recognition must be taken as marking an important contribution to the elevation of education into a university subject. The diploma is granted only under high conditions. Candidates must be graduates in arts of a Scottish, English, or Irish university, or of some other university approved by the Senatus and the University Court; must have attended the class of the theory, art, and history of education; must pass an examination in the theory, art, and history of education; must give evidence of having had satisfactory practical training; and must satisfy the university of their practical aptitude as teachers by teaching a class. The diploma is of two grades: (*a*) secondary school diploma, for masters of arts with honors; (*b*) general diploma, for ordinary graduates. Professor Laurie has reason to be satisfied that his class has now been put on its proper footing.

UNIVERSITY GRADUATES AS CERTIFICATED TEACHERS UNDER THE NEW CODE. *The Journal of Education* [London], May 1896.

THE revised code, besides several minor improvements, such as the raising of the age for pupil teachers, has one new regulation of sufficient importance to be quoted verbally: "Graduates or persons who are qualified by examination to become graduates, in arts or science of any university in the United Kingdom, may be recognized as certificated teachers, provided that they hold a certificate of proficiency in the theory and practice of teaching issued by a university or collegiate body recognized by the department."

For the first time, the department surrenders its monopoly, and removes the vexatious ordeals to which an Oxford or Cambridge graduate who desires to teach in an elementary school has had to submit.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION IN AUSTRIA. *The Journal of Education* [London], April 1896.

THE University of Vienna claims to be the first German university—Bern excluded, where the movement has no official recognition—to introduce the English system of University Extension. The management of the enterprise has been placed in the hands of a committee elected by the professors and the *Privatdocenten*. It is from the ranks of the latter that the supply of lecturers will, it is expected, be chiefly drawn. Religious, political, and social controversies are to be excluded from the programme—a restriction which, in our judgment, will have a somewhat cramping effect. The courses are open to all except children of the school age, and are held on the evenings of the week days. Six lectures make a course, the charge for which is simply a registration fee of less than a shilling. As in England, discussion is allowed at the close of each lecture. The experiment, during the short time in which it has been in operation, has met with extraordinary success. In the first week, for the twenty-four courses, 1916 names were entered, the most popular subject being anatomy, the lectures in which were heard by some 350 persons, men and women. In all cases a large part of the audience consisted of workingmen.

WOMEN'S DEGREES AT OXFORD. *The Schoolmaster* [London], March 7, 1896.

OXFORD is true to its tradition. It intends still to be the home of lost causes. By 215 votes to 140 the members of Congregation have rejected the motion: "That it is desirable, subject to certain conditions, to admit to the degree of B.A., women who have kept residence at Oxford for twelve terms in a place of residence approved by the university, and who have passed (under the same regulations as apply to undergraduates) all the examinations required for the degree of B.A." But as Professor Dicey said, the action of Congregation can only delay the reform. For it is one of those matters in the interests of which time arrays itself. Meanwhile, the obstinate majority will learn by degrees that women are fit for something better than to add color and muslin draperies to the ceremonies of the commemoration week. Some of them seem to overlook the fact that at Oxford itself, facilities for the higher education of women have been the order of the day since 1879, and that since 1884 the university has actually opened some of its examinations to women students. It seems also to be forgotten that every university in the British Isles has opened its portals to women upon the same terms as to men—except Oxford, Cambridge, and Trinity College, Dublin.

MRS. FREDERIC HARRISON ON THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN. *The Journal of Education* [London], April 1896.

MRS. FREDERIC HARRISON, in the *Fortnightly Review*, makes a German professor the mouthpiece for her notions on the higher education of women. We beg her pardon: higher education is a monstrous misnomer, and applies, if it have any significance, to teaching in the nursery. However that may be, Mrs. Harrison holds that coeducation after the nursery is radically wrong. Girls' minds are clay in the hands of the potter; boys' minds are marble, or, it may be, pig-iron; therefore they must be wrought by different tools and different workmen. Why offer our girls as a holocaust to the Moloch of examinations? Why make them swallow the university system whole? Let them not "take up" subjects, like tripos-bound undergraduates, let them cease to be amateurs and put men to the blush, but let them do it in a university of their own. What then is the mental equipment that every woman must possess before she can call herself educated? Mrs. Harrison shall answer categorically: (1) A knowledge of at least three modern languages, preferably four. (2) Latin or Greek, or possibly both. (Greek, we infer, is essential, since Clara is snubbed for studying the rise and formation of guilds before she has read Herodotus and Thucydides.) (3) Universal history. (4) A sound scientific training, beginning with mathematics. (5) Training in the history of art, and a practical acquaintance with at least one art. (6) Sewing, cooking, household economy, laws of health, sick nursing, etc. This, if we interpret Mrs. Harrison rightly, is the syllabus for a pass degree in her ideal women's university. The Lady Ida's was not a patch upon it.

THE COST OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN GERMANY. *The Journal of Education* [London], December 1895.

TRUSTWORTHY statistics of the actual cost of a university education in Germany are not easily obtained. We are, therefore, pleased to see that the *Academische Revue* has, at the request of the Italian Ministry of Agriculture and Trade, instituted a careful inquiry into the subject. The figures relate to the faculties of law and medicine, and are given for the three universities of Berlin, Erlangen, and Giessen. There being no very striking difference, we confine ourselves to Berlin, and reproduce first the scale of fees charged. (1) Matriculation, 18s. (2) Examinations: for law students, not stated; for students of medicine, £12 2s. (3) At graduation: in the faculty of law, £17 15s.; in the faculty of medicine, £22. (4) Lectures: in law, £20 to £25; in medicine, £45 to £60. Adding a sum of £7 10s. for the printing of the dissertation, and allowing to a law student £15 for books, to a medical student £25 for books and instruments, we find that the necessary fixed expenditure of the future lawyer may be set down at £65; of the future doctor, at nearly £130.

Next comes expenditure, which is necessary, but which will vary in amount according to the habits of the student and the duration of his studies. The minimum outlay of a law student not living with his parents must be reckoned at £185 for a three years' course; of a medical student under similar circumstances at £250 to £270 for a four-and-a-half years' course. Thus the total cost of a qualification in law may be set down at £250, which sum spread over three years is £88 3s. 4d. a year; whilst a qualification in medicine involves a total payment of £380 to £400 in four-and-a-half years, or a yearly average of £84 9s. to £88 15s. Some months ago we conjectured in this column that the expenditure of an ordinary German student would be found to be £90 a year; the figures we have quoted justify our estimate as nearly as possible. To compare English relations with German, a law student at Trinity Hall will need to be supplied with £150 a year for three years; he will not then be qualified to practice as a barrister, but may address himself to the payment of new fees at an Inn of Court and to the practical study of his profession. The case of the medical student is somewhat similar. We could condone the extravagance of our own system were we quite sure that it yields better lawyers and more skillful doctors. But will anyone seriously contend that it does?

SCHOOL EXCURSIONS. *The Journal of Education* [London], April 1896.

In the March number of *Der praktische Schulmann*, edited by Herr Richter, of Leipzig, there is an interesting article by Herr Tittel, director of a school at Schönheide, on the advantage of rousing the historical sense in children by early lessons in the annals and legendary lore of their native town and its neighborhood. He takes as his illustration the western end of the Erz-Gebirge, the high ground which separates Saxony from Bohemia, and works out his theme with masterly grasp of suggestive detail. Knowledge of one's own country side, he contends, is the right groundwork of historical study. We must make the children realize the history of their own district. What do the names of the towns and villages signify? What are the great monuments of the neighborhood, and why are they there? What is the history of its famous churches and castles? What are the traditions of the district, what its legends? Where do its great roads lead to? Why have some fallen into disuse? These are some of the questions, he says, by which we should awaken the curiosity of children. Lessons on these lines, begun at least as early as the ninth or tenth year, will both train them in patriotism and prepare them for the right kind of historical appreciation. But this kind of teaching will not be given only in the school room; the scholars must be taken to see the places about which they learn in order that they may get vivid impressions on the spot.

The art, however, of planning and conducting a successful school excursion is not an easy one, and it so happens that, by a fortunate coincidence,

the March issue of that admirable magazine, *Neue Bahnen*, contains a well-written article on "school walks," from the pen of Professor Klein, of Friedberg in Hessen. The professor describes a summer day's excursion in term time, with its early start at 8 o'clock from the schoolhouse door, the little flags flying and the school band piping and drumming through the narrow streets into the meadows and the woods beyond. Of the varied experiences of the long and happy day this is not the place to speak further, but Dr. Klein maintains that a school excursion should not last less than a whole day, that under right conditions it has an excellent effect on the *moral* and *esprit de corps* of the school, and that more is often learnt during one such school walk than in a much longer time spent in a class room.